

The Teachers College Journal

Volume II

March, 1931

Number 4

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Division of Research

Indiana State Teachers College

Terre Haute, Indiana

THE TEACHERS COLLEGE JOURNAL

VOLUME II

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Curriculum Construction in High School Commercial Education

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Tendencies in Modern Secondary School Education

There are many difficult problems in the field of secondary education today which demand solution. The fact that we are living in a modern age and are enjoying so many material advantages does not lend much comfort to the leaders in education who are trying to solve the perplexing questions that confront them in the onward march of educational development.

In ancient times it was not difficult to train the youth to meet the demands made upon society because life and its activities were much more simple. Today, in our complex type of society, the demands are greater and life is continually furnishing greater obstacles for those who are trying to live it more abundantly.

A mere cursory study of the history of secondary education, as found in this country, reveals the fact that great social forces are at work developing new industrial material. At

the same time these forces are removing slowly that which is undesirable and revitalizing such material as may be retained. Back of these impelling forces there has been a theory developed or an idea advanced that has caused a modification of the teaching material as one solution of this problem.

Secondary education has drawn upon the contributions furnished by other fields devoted to the study of human welfare. Consequently, it has been forced to meet the challenge by a change in its methods of evaluation. It has had to modify its goals and set up a procedure in keeping with the results of scientific experimentation. The leaders who are vitally interested in the problem of subject matter have attempted to search out, to evaluate, and to bring together these findings of scientific research. They have tried to meet the demands of these social forces as they affect the body of knowledge which must eventually find its way into the subjects that will

be taught in our secondary schools.

We are living in a new day educationally. There is a new spirit abroad in the land. If the schools are to be held responsible for the development and interpretation of this new spirit as well as for its guidance into positive and constructive channels, then opportunity must be offered to those in charge of the schools to discover and make use of the new material which is itself a part of modern social life. An attempt to direct the youth of today by means of educational processes and materials appropriate to an age long passed by would be comparable to directing a modern army by the tactics used in early Egyptian warfare. Out of the school itself there must appear a new program created and sponsored by those who shall administer it.

A new set of specifications must be drawn up, since the plans have been changed so radically by our modern democratic society. The needs of the present are vastly greater than those of the past and of a decidedly different character. The very spirit of the times demands a solution.

In the commercial field educators are faced with a more specific or definite type of training which will fit the pupil for his job. The investigations in this field, while rather limited, reveal the fact that the preparation in many lines of instruction in this field of work does not function on the job. The difficulty seems to be that the instruction is not of sufficiently vocational type. While it is not wholly concerned with the development of occupational skills, it should give the training necessary in order to fulfill adequately the requirements of the job. The instruction obviously

has not been planned to meet the demands of the new regime in business. Again it has been shown that there needs to be a differentiation, not only between the type of training given to boys and girls, but also between the skills and practices which are needed on the job.

We are confronted then with the question—just what do we mean by that type of vocational training which is designated by commercial education?

What is Commercial Education?

"Commercial education is any type of training which has for its primary objective the preparation of people to enter upon a business career, or having entered upon such a career, to render more efficient service therein, and to advance from their present levels of employment to higher levels.

"High school commercial education is that form of commercial education which has for its primary purpose the preparation of boys and girls for entrance upon commercial employment with reasonable prospects of succeeding in their work by reason of possession of:

- "1. General education of varying but substantial amounts.
- "2. A fund of general business knowledge.
- "3. A degree of occupational intelligence.
- "4. Some social intelligence.
- "5. An initial occupational skill.
- "6. A proper attitude toward a life work.
- "7. Ethical standards in accordance with which their life work is to be accomplished."

This definition of high school commercial education, which Professor

F. G. Nichols has given, completely lifts the subject of commercial work out of the academic setting in which it has been for so long (in fact, for almost its entire existence) and places it on a more stable and progressive basis with a vocational outlook that will serve society and its needs.

Dr. Snedden says that commercial education has been for many years the most widely developed form of so-called vocational education in either private or public schools.

We are living too close to the origin of the subject, however, to avoid the mistakes which have been made in its growth and development. It is another example of having to live down the sins of the forefathers. No doubt we are not altogether blameless in regard to the errors which have been attributed to the field of high school commercial education. We have made our contribution to its weaknesses and aided in perpetuating the traditions within the course, which have been as detrimental and harmful to its proper growth and progress as have been the traditions in the general or so-called cultural courses through which it has grown.

Those of us who are engaged in commercial education are all more or less guilty of sowing tares of "speed in typewriting," of bookkeeping as a cure-all, and of other similar ones in the fertile and productive field of commercial education. We are confronted not only with the uprooting of these tares but also with the construction of a forward-looking program which will take into consideration the economic changes in our business structure.

These changes in business demand

corresponding changes in the type of business education in order to meet the needs of business life. Commercial education is attempting to meet this demand by the offerings of the junior high school, the evening commercial school, and many other types of commercial work.

It is our task as workers in the field of commercial education to see that each individual has every opportunity for the development of his own peculiar capacities, interests, and attitudes, with vocational understanding and such other factors as are necessary to round out a complete training for life activities. In order that this may be accomplished, a new philosophy of commercial education has been developed.

The Philosophy of Commercial Education

Educational philosophy is the determining factor in most of the policies which underlie educational organization. Dr. Kilpatrick says, "The philosophy of commercial education is simply the philosophy of education directed to the policies and practices of commercial education."

If this be true, commercial education will make its plans not with a view to narrow specialization, but rather in consideration of the whole of life, both of the individual and of the community. The task, then, of the philosophy of education is to study the conflicts of interest arising in connection with education in order that we may exercise more adequate regard for significant values. This would mean that commercial education will contemplate the whole of life for every child on the three-fold basis of: first, vocation; second, active participation in civic life; and

third, rich living in the highest sense in the more private affairs of life.

Education, and especially commercial education today, is vitally concerned with the problems of how the pupil uses what he knows, just what the subjects are which will be of most value to the student, and what methods may be used in order to secure his whole-hearted interest. To this end much research is being done in order to eliminate the waste and to find out just what the pupil needs to know in order to live more abundantly and to serve more efficiently in the community in which he is to live.

Dr. Lomax has very concisely stated that the philosophy of education is the answer to the question, "Why do we teach what we teach?" Since commercial education is particularly of the vocational type, the principles and aims of commercial education would, in general, be largely that of vocational education. Broadly then, commercial education would endeavor to equip the individual to secure a livelihood for himself and those dependent upon him; to serve society well through his vocation; to maintain the right relationship toward his fellow workers; and finally, as far as possible, to find in that vocation his own best development. Specifically, commercial education will not only be concerned with the business phase of all human endeavor, but will deal with the specialized technical preparation for commercial occupations.

With this philosophy of education, which reveals the train of thought which has brought forth the modified teaching material as its product, in mind, we approach the subject of

establishing the objectives of the curriculum.

Establishment of Curriculum Objectives

Dr. Bobbitt says, "Education is the process of growing up in the right way. The objectives are the goals of growth. The pupil's activities and experiences are the steps which make up his journey toward those goals. The activities and experiences are the curriculum." If this is true, it is obvious that those who are engaged in commercial education will not make much progress until definite objectives have been set up as a goal.

Before a definite course can be planned or established, it is essential to determine the objectives to be reached in that work. First, it is essential to know the kind of people to be trained for the vocational pursuits and the specific requirements for the vocations. Since the vocational activities are greatly differentiated, the requirements must be suited to the individual according to the specific vocation for which preparation is being made. Hence it is necessary to know a great deal, in fact all that can be reasonably known, about the people to be trained. In the formulation of objectives in order to understand the problem at hand, it would be necessary to consider these questions. Is this a homogeneous group? Do they all want the same kind of help? Of what age are they? What are they able to do? What experience have they had? Are they boys or girls?

Second, what objectives should be set up for the training to be given? This will have great bearing on the type of instruction to be given which is to prepare for the particular voca-

tional work. If the demand in the community for stenographers is greater than the supply of efficient stenographers, then it will be necessary to provide for that type of work. The same is true regarding any other type of work.

If the investigation of the community's interests reveals a special demand for a particular type of training, then that will have a bearing on the objectives to be set up in order to meet the needs of that community. This information and much more should be at hand in order to determine intelligently the needs of the specific community.

Third, it will be necessary to consider how the training is to be given. The day commercial school may meet all these demands but it is more probable that some other type of institutional organization will have to be set up also in order to administer to the needs of the entire community. It may be that a promotional type will best meet these demands, but the evening commercial school and continuation school, both with courses of different length, may be necessary in order to meet the demands of the community. The proper answer to these three questions will make it possible for objectives to be set up which will be adequate for a certain community.

In keeping with the most recent and approved methods of educational procedure, high school commercial objectives should be divided into two groups:

1. Prevocational.
2. Vocational.

The prevocational subjects should be given in the junior high school. They should cover the last half of the

eighth year and the ninth year. No type of specialization should be attempted this early for several reasons: first, the inability of the students, on account of their immaturity, to understand the work and their inability to secure positions (all surveys that have been made show that few, if any, are employed in offices under the age of sixteen); second, an insufficient amount of proper, general, educational background; third, a lack of occupational understanding. If the organization of the school is on the eight-four basis prevocational work should be given early, at least by the middle of the second year.

The prevocational objectives take into consideration all previous preparation for the specific job. With a system of wise guidance it will be possible to offer these students information that will enable them to select the right job. Those moving in this direction must have some outlook beyond the immediate job.

It is easy to justify prevocational training on these grounds:

1. It must contain elements of general education.
2. It must include elements for personal improvement.
3. It should contain elements of exploratory development.
4. It should build a basis for further studies in the field of commercial education.
5. Studies in work should be vocationally useful.

In the early organization of the junior high school curriculum it was a common practice to bring down from the senior high school the subjects most commonly taught there—bookkeeping, shorthand, typewriting, commercial arithmetic, et cetera.

This practice was generally abandoned for reasons previously stated. The subject that is best adapted to the junior high school curriculum is Junior Business Training. It is rich in content and can be spread over the exploratory and try-out period in prevocational work.

Vocational commercial education may be justified on the following bases:

1. Providing a general background for business preparation.
2. Providing general business understanding and appreciation.
3. Providing a technical skill.

It is not necessary for industrial workers to have a general educational background because they prepare for one particular job. The type of work which they do is manual, while the commercial worker requires mental rather than manual activity. It is necessary, then, that the commercial student broaden his training by the study of salesmanship, economics, commercial geography, business English, and business organization. General literature and science are also advantageous in acquiring a general background.

In comparison with the industrial groups not much is offered to prospective stenographers and bookkeepers. Conditions have been reversed with these two groups within the last thirty or forty years with reference to their earning capacity. Formerly, the bookkeeper and stenographer held the positions of preferment for two reasons: first, they filled the positions known as the "white collar jobs," and second, their pay was more than that of the industrial worker because they were in posi-

tions that were closer to and led to leadership in business. Today, however, the compensation of plumbers and electricians is much higher than that received by the commercial group. Their economic status has been reversed.

Bookkeepers and stenographers soon reach their maximum salaries. Unless a program of promotional training is kept in mind, there is not much to offer as a life work to the commercial group. This is one important phase of vocational education.

There is, however, one advantage which the commercial worker enjoys, and that is the possibility of immediate placement. This is another important phase of commercial preparation.

All vocational commercial education should meet the requirements of modern business. The commercial students should acquire more than technical skill. It should be made possible in a vocational commercial program, to recognize individual differences, as there are many groups to be trained. Some attention should be directed to such subjects as business organization, salesmanship, and economics that will broaden the training of this group. This is one of the real objectives of commercial education. We cannot give students full and complete preparation for the job, but we can place in their hands a few implements that will aid them materially along the path of their endeavor.

Need for a Curriculum

"The curriculum is the orderly arrangement of courses for different pupils, through a number of years,

for the purpose of attaining a definite goal," says Dr. L. A. Williams.

Professor Broome expresses the thought in this way, "A synthesis of subjects, organized in accordance with a definite plan, designed to accomplish a definite educational purpose, constitutes a curriculum."

These definitions indicate a fulfillment or a realization of the objectives set up by a community for its training. If the high school curriculum today fails in its purpose, it is either because the investigation set up to ascertain the needs of the community in the way of definite objectives was inadequate, or because there is lack of leadership in the commercial activities represented by the school.

It should not be expected that the high school commercial department send out students who are capable of filling business positions of the highest type, but it should give a type of training which will enable the student to take the initial step in business. If commercial work fails to give the adequate training, it is due, in large measure, to the purposes and aims set up for its accomplishment. Many of those who formulate the objectives fail because they adhere to the traditional character of the work to be covered, instead of planning the work with a vocational outlook that is purposeful. If completely and efficiently planned, the work will furnish in the curriculum the chart and compass that will pilot the individual through the troubled waters of business life.

Again, the curriculum should not be planned with only the needs of those students who will complete the course in mind since a large number

of students who enroll in the commercial course drop out before they complete the course.

The need for a curriculum which will prepare pupils to understand the situations which they meet in actual life has been revealed by surveys and researches which have been conducted by such men as F. G. Nichols, F. Bobbitt, and W. W. Charters. These surveys and researches have been of immeasurable value in the adjustment of general curriculum needs.

As to the specific needs of the community in high school business education and the adjustment of the curriculum to meet these needs, we come to this vital question, "Who should make the curriculum?"

Who Should Make the Curriculum?

Curriculum making, like all other modern educational movements, has challenged the very best thinkers in the field of education to participate in its solution. We have had various types and forms of curricula from the early beginning of education down to the present time.

The character of the curriculum depends in a large measure upon the makers of the curriculum. To whom then or on whom rather should this important task rest?

Those responsible for formulating the course of study in the Los Angeles schools believe in giving the classroom teachers a chance to participate in making the course of study which they will use in their work. This was done by the course of study committee. This plan was reported to be effective in a large measure, due to the fact that the classroom teachers were actively interested in it, and it was regarded as

more "teachable" than if it had been imposed on them by their superiors.

In the city of Philadelphia the curriculum revision is in direct charge of a committee of teachers and heads of departments in cooperation with the division of commercial education. This seems to be a very elaborate plan and one that is very effective.

Curriculum making is intrusted to the classroom teachers in the city of Pittsburgh. Reports are that this plan has been most satisfactory.

Walters seems to think that the best plan for curriculum making would be to have the course outlined by the principal together with the assistance of the head of the commercial department. At this juncture he would call in the heads of other departments affected by the course and secure their aid in preparing syllabi for the subjects involved. The final step would be to present the completed course of study to representative business men.

This plan would involve perhaps fifteen people participating in the reorganization of the curriculum when only one of them really understands the real specific problem. This plan, on the face of it, does not appear to be practicable.

The Twenty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, which is devoted to curriculum making, contains the following statement:

"In an ideal situation (not actually to be found in the United States) the task would be done by a technically trained research staff of specialists, clerks, statisticians, educational psychologists, and teachers. Practically, in the present under-develop-

ed state of curriculum making, it is impossible to finance such a program of specialists even in the large cities. Actually, therefore, most of the work of preparing courses of study, syllabi, or outlines of study will be done by groups of teachers."

Since, under present conditions, the work of curriculum making does fall largely on the shoulders of teachers and administrators it is they who must find what types of training are needed in order to prepare students to enter the business world and, as far as possible, to plan a curriculum which will fill this need.

Dr. Counts furnishes a list of those who should aid in making the curriculum as follows: "the psychologist, the sociologist, the philosopher, the specialist in the organization of the materials of instruction, the classroom teacher, the expert in the appraisal of the curriculum, and the high school administrator."

If we wait until we have an array of talent such as suggested in this list, we will never have a satisfactory curriculum.

The classroom teacher is in a better position to know the needs and to assist in the curriculum making than any other individual who has been suggested.

After those who are to administer the curriculum have made a thorough investigation of a community's needs by a careful survey and a complete analysis, valid suggestions and practices should be the result.

In order that the teachers may efficiently serve in the formation and establishment of the modern curriculum, it is necessary for them to be familiar with the technique employed in curriculum making.

The Technique Employed in Curriculum Making

The technique of evaluation, selection, arrangement, and administration resulting from the older or dogmatic method of education is classified as "imitation" and "summation" by Williams. He makes the point that in the first case, that of imitation, one authority copied outright what another had done, with or without formal acknowledgement and consent. In the second case, that of summation, a collection was made of many high school programs of studies, tabulation of facts concerning them was given, and a new program was made in the light of the majority practice.

These forms still remain as techniques in program making in many places. The emphasis on the material element has been replaced by emphasis on the human element because the new theory in making a curriculum reflects the new theory of learning, which is: first, a process of acquiring facts; and second, a process of participating in life activities. Scientific research along material lines in other kinds of work has produced such outstanding results that there has developed a demand for a scientific approach to school problems, which has produced a sum total of techniques for curriculum making which are considered as analysis techniques. While not completely successful in meeting the demand for scientific curriculum construction, these techniques are steps forward in the scientific approach to educational problems. Such men as Bobbitt and Charters have given us a glimpse of this new procedure in curriculum making.

Just recently Dr. W. W. Charters has completed a study that aims to show the special requirements of women with the object of establishing a curriculum for Stephens College which will be built to meet student needs. In order to do this Dr. Charters selected one thousand college women who were graduates of various colleges and who were living in thirty-seven different states. These women agreed to keep unsigned diaries, for a period of twenty-five years, in which they were to list every problem which they encountered in their daily lives. These activities were grouped and the items were classified. Separate analyses were made for home-makers and professional women. It was found that some activities were common to all women, and through the findings and classifications, the basic courses of the new curriculum were established.

In like manner, a procedure which would be necessary to establish a high school commercial curriculum which would be suited to community needs would be to secure:

1. An occupational survey of the community.
2. An activity analysis of the graduates of high school commercial courses.
3. A study of the drop-outs.

After these three surveys have been made, a correct interpretation of the data would indicate the needs of the community and would enable the investigators to set up the type of curriculum that would be best suited to the community needs.

Dr. Bobbitt has employed different techniques in different communities for the purpose of setting up a general curriculum.

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Multiple Curriculum Necessary

Educational theory in recent years has undergone significant changes for the betterment of the social order. The theory of growth, or reconstruction of experiences, has given a new significance to the value of education. Scientific investigation and research are being used in commercial education as in all other lines of educational work. The discovery of individual differences is of distinct advantage to commercial education in that it has opened the way for the establishment of various courses to meet the increasing needs of society. The single curriculum in which peculiar individual differences were so often the stumbling block of teacher and of pupil in the old educational process of fitting all individuals to a single pattern is now in discard. The multiple curriculum has taken its place.

The increased attendance in high schools also has made necessary increased offerings in subject matter. The motivating element in educational theory makes possible a broadening of high school courses. The academic subjects which were only of use to the few proved to be inadequate for the use of so many. Again the importance of business in every phase of life has made it necessary that adequate training be provided for those students who were so interested.

The differentiation of curricula under this plan will permit the establishment of a curriculum of a four-fold nature, which will take care of the work throughout the entire secondary period regardless of the type of organization. This will provide

for an exploratory and try-out period of activities looking toward the choice of a definite field in which specialization will be begun. A curriculum built on this basis will afford a complete articulation of the work. This will make it possible for each year from seven to twelve to be planned on a complete unit basis. However, no matter how carefully we may construct our plans for curriculum making, it should be borne in mind that our program is never final nor fixed for its nature, its order, its function are constantly changing.

"Reorganization of high school curricula must go on constantly in the light of new needs, new purposes, new conditions, new knowledge. The stream of knowledge must never be allowed to become a stagnant pool; for it carries the life and heritage of the race from generation to generation and from age to age. Human knowledge, after all, is relative, not absolute; human understanding is limited, not infinite; human life is dynamic, not static; human affairs are fluid, not fixed. For these reasons a high school program of studies is always to be made."

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Problems and Plans for the Teaching of Writing in Rural and Town Schools

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A few months ago I was asked to discuss "Problems and Plans for the Teaching of Writing in Rural and Town Schools" for the Writing Section of the Indiana State Teachers Association at its meeting at Indianapolis. Fortunately, I had in my classes at that time a number of students who knew the situation from actual recent experience. Since first-hand information is the most reliable, I decided to enlist the assistance of these students. My request met with a most generous response, and many of the suggestions offered are embodied in this discussion.

I have attempted to place the problems under the three general classifications of Equipment, Time, and Methods of Instruction.

Equipment

The inadequacy of proper equipment led the list of complaints. Rough or high blackboards, desks of improper height and size, insufficient light, inferior paper, faulty pens, poor ink, and lack of letter charts were the chief features named.

When such a condition exists, the teacher is at once confronted with the very worst obstacles to the attainment of satisfactory results. Not even an accomplished penman can do good work with such equipment, since the proper position is absolutely essential to good control of the

muscles and nerves, which is in turn necessary to the development of skill and grace. We can never hope for the attainment of legibility, rapidity, ease, and endurance that makes writing an art and a pleasure unless we have good tools. We must have paper with a smooth hard surface; ink that flows smoothly from a good flexible steel pen; and a sure hand to guide the pen with a light, quick motion over the paper. By way of comparison with another skill, I would suggest that a skater would hardly attempt to glide gracefully over rough ice on rusty skates.

Various suggestions were offered as to how proper equipment may be obtained. Of course, any improvement in equipment will improve conditions for all other work the children do. The earnest, tactful teacher will surely be able to convince the principal, superintendent, township trustee, Parent-Teacher Association, or some generous patron of this fact and secure assistance in bringing about better working conditions. Good materials cost very little more than poor ones and the teacher should instruct her students what to buy.

Time

The second classification, time, or lack of it, was presented in three different phases: the writing lesson has no definite place on the daily pro-

gram; the writing period is not long enough; and the writing lesson must be taught to several grades at the same time.

It was the consensus of opinion that writing, being a skill subject, should have a definite place on the daily program; that each writing lesson should have a definite aim; that each week, month, or term should show the attainment of certain standards; and that writing should be correlated with other subjects to make the work of the writing period effective.

When several grades must be taught writing at the same period, the teacher may place assignments for the advanced students on the board, take some time for explanations, and set them to work until she can instruct the smaller children what to do. In addition to the regular assignment for the best students, the teacher may ask them to assist the students who are having difficulty with the position, movement, or letter forms. By dividing the students into groups according to ability rather than grades, the number of groups and assignments may possibly be reduced to three. The offering of certificates as awards for correct position, for movement, and for good writing in general, and promotion to the next higher group, provides good incentives for greater effort. Another incentive for those in the highest group is the privilege of helping the weaker students, while still another is having more advanced lessons in writing.

Methods of Instruction

For this third classification, the phase for which the individual teach-

er may be held responsible, it seems best to list some of the statements for consideration.

These statements themselves bear evidence that they were made by students who had no teaching experience:

Teachers do not have proper knowledge of the subject.

Teachers do not write well.

Teachers are not interested in the subject.

Teachers have no definite aim for the writing lesson.

Teachers have no definite standards set for attainment.

Teachers do not show children the necessity of better writing.

Teachers care only for legibility—manner of writing has no value.

Teachers do not supervise the writing work.

Teachers never asked us to improve our writing.

Teachers were continually complaining about the illegible writing in our high school, yet no writing course was offered.

The following list was just as evidently submitted by those students who had teaching experience:

The greatest difficulty is to get children to use proper position and movement.

The primary teacher does not have time to teach the children to write properly.

The great need of penmanship is to establish uniformity throughout the grades in order to form habits of correct usage—the slipshod method is responsible for all corrective methods which must be administered below the sixth grade.

More time is required to correct a habit than to form a new one—

much time and energy is wasted which could otherwise be used effectively.

The greatest difficulty the children encounter in learning to write is in the confusion of letter forms the teachers use—each teacher writes her own system.

After children have completed the primary grades, their writing becomes poorer and poorer because there is no time for proper practice.

The greatest writing problem of the upper-grade teacher is the undoing of the many incorrect habits that have been learned so well in the previous six years.

Probably enough complaints have been registered to show that each one feels very much abused by the neglect, wilful or otherwise, of someone else. However, some very good suggestions were made to offset this adverse criticism. In addition to having good equipment and materials, the daily writing period should be well supervised by the teacher; the methods employed should consider the laws of learning, the individual child, and the relation between mental and physical growth; the teacher should have at least a fair amount of skill in writing in order to be able to teach it effectively; each teacher of writing in Indiana should secure all the materials provided for in connection with the state-adopted system.

For the upper grades there is no better way to secure supplementary work than to correlate the writing with other subjects, by giving two grades on each written lesson. For example, when the spelling lesson is written, the accuracy of the spelling may be graded in figures, and the

writing in letters, as A, B, C, or E for excellent, G for good, et cetera. This helps the child to realize the value of the legibility and appearance of written work.

In the first and second grades the chief aim should be to teach children to write words legibly. No great degree of skill or grace should be expected of very young children. In the third grade drill work may be started and gradually increased as the muscles and nerves develop and the student gains control of them.

Much board work is helpful. Small children should be taught to write well at the board before they are taught to write at the desk. Board work even through the eighth grade has been found to produce most excellent results for letter forms, slant, and freedom of movement.

It is not advisable to allow a child who has learned to write and spell very well to drop these elementary subjects even in the sixth grade. He has just arrived at the stage when he can develop his best skill in writing and his best vocabulary of discriminated words.

If there is no supervisor of writing, the teachers may choose one of their own number to plan the work so that all may be following the same plan, and thereby avoid confusing the children.

Illustrations and descriptions in the textbooks show how the child should stand at the board and sit at the desk, and these should be followed closely. Children who have difficulty in learning to use the muscles properly should be allowed to use the full arm movement with the hand in correct position, resting and gliding on the third and fourth fingers.

Several weeks of patient work may be required to secure the desired results, but children who are normal mentally and well physically can learn to use the right position. By the right position is meant the one that is recommended by penmanship experts, physical education experts, and doctors, as the most healthful and comfortable for either reading or writing.

One of the first things a child wishes to do, even before he attends school, is to learn to write, so the incentive is already provided. If he is started correctly, and can learn to do it well, of course he is interested in doing it.

Charts showing letter forms and correct position, and measuring scales should be placed on the walls, and the children instructed how to use them to determine their progress. As incentives to progress, certificates may be offered, contests held by those who care for that kind of competition, the best papers posted on the bulletin board, and the best specimens of work taken home occasionally to show to mother and father.

Loose sheets of paper, flat on the desk, should be used for all written work. Copy books and tablets are too thick and throw the hand out of position.

The use of the victrola is the most desirable means of securing rhythm and of making the writing hour a very pleasant one for the children. The music causes a relaxation and happy feeling that is necessary to good control of the muscles and nerves.

A school exhibit has proved to be quite an incentive to splendid progress in many students. The county

superintendent in some cases issues certificates to students who do excellent work.

The left-handed child should have special attention. When he first enters school, he should be tried out at the board. After a few days, if there is little evidence of his likelihood of developing skill in the right hand, he should be taught and carefully supervised as to the manner of holding the crayon, pen, or pencil in the left hand, and the correct position of the paper. Some children are apparently so left-handed that they cannot develop skill in the right hand. In most cases the change could be made by kindly persuasion—absolutely not by force—and would be of great personal benefit to the child in later years.

Now, many people wonder why we do all this talking about writing. To the majority of people writing is just as important a means of expression as talking. We really need much more training in both of them to enable us to write and speak more easily, gracefully, and with more pleasure to both the performer and the listener or reader. Writing is a tool of education and should be taught well enough down in the grades that the student may use it easily and more skilfully as he progresses from grade to grade and as more writing is required. He should be able to write legibly, easily, rapidly, and without tiring until his task is finished. He should give his entire effort to the thought he is trying to record, rather than to labor along, scratching down some illegible marks that a teacher will have to spend at least a half-hour's extra time trying to ferret out. Two bad results may

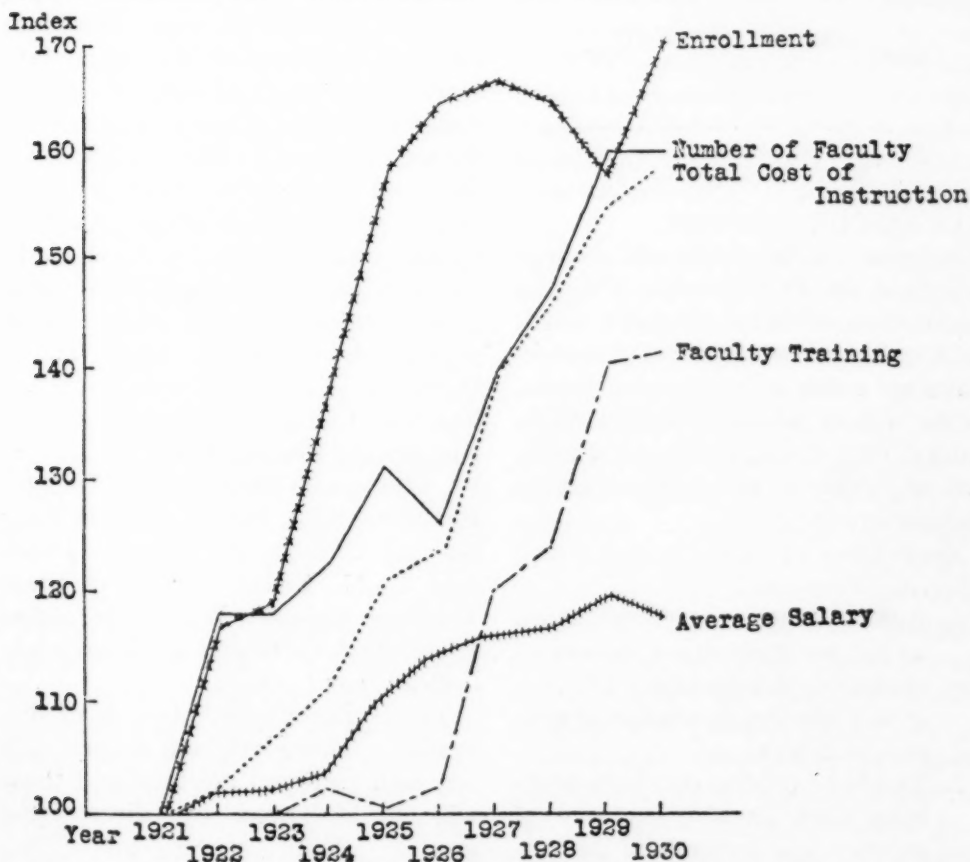
come from this—the student's grade may be cut, and the teacher's disposition may be ruined.

If given its proper place on the program, writing need not be any more difficult to teach than any other subject. If all teachers would exact nicely written work in all subjects, the legibility and general appearance of all papers would be increased at least one hundred per cent. Most of us have come to think it is quite worth the effort necessary to produce such results, though Indiana has not quite reached the advanced stage of some of our progressive neighbors. She does not yet require by State

Board ruling that all grade teachers have a writing certificate. However, we are improving, as shown by the fact that many city and county superintendents are making that requirement of all grade teachers. Once we are in the way of good writing and its results, I feel sure there will be no back-sliding.

NOTE—The state-adopted text, "Correlated Handwriting," was planned and worked out carefully by Frank N. Freeman, one of our foremost psychologists, and the representative teachers and supervisors of the Zaner-Bloser Penmanship School. If the instructions given in the text are followed carefully, the teacher cannot go far astray in her efforts to teach the subject successfully. The manual may be had without charge by those who are teaching writing.

For supplementary work for little children, "Funny Fable Folk," published by the Zaner-Bloser Publishing Company, Columbus, Ohio, and, "Legends of Letterland," by A. Big Bird, A. N. Palmer Company, Chicago, Illinois, are good.



Ten Years of Growth at the Indiana State Teachers College
L. N. Hines, President 1921-1930

TEACHERS COLLEGE JOURNAL

Published bi-monthly by the Division of Research, Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Indiana.

J. W. Jones, Director, Division of Research Editor

Manuscripts offered for publication from those interested in teacher-training and teachers college problems should be addressed to the Division of Research, Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Indiana.

Subscription rate one dollar fifty cents per year.



TEACHER-TRAINING PROBLEMS CONFERENCE.

Indiana State Teachers College will hold its first Teacher-Training Problems Conference on April 10-11, 1931. Representatives of teacher-training colleges and departments, public school administrators—state, county, city, town, and local schools, and students from teacher-training colleges are invited.

Four lines of work will be considered. They are:

1. Administrative problems, such as the selection and guidance of students, development of personnel studies, institutional policies, et cetera.
2. Teacher-training curricula problems such as the sequence of courses, and methods of instruction.
3. Public relations problems of

teachers colleges, a study of conditions dealing with such questions as placement, follow-up, and in-service training.

4. Student problems such as student health, student organizations, et cetera.

There will be sectional meetings and a general conference devoted to each of these subjects.

Dean William S. Gray of the University of Chicago will be the guest speaker of the conference. He will discuss two topics, "The Nature of Professional Courses in Teacher-Training" and "Implications of the New Educational Plan at the University of Chicago."

Others who will be on the program of the conference are President Charles McKenny of Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti; President Eugene Fair of Northern Missouri State Teachers College, Kirksville; Dr. Paul V. Sangren, director of research at Western State Teachers College, Kalamazoo; Dr. Carl G. F. Franzen and Dr. Wendell W. Wright, professors of education, Indiana University, Bloomington; Dean H. L. Donovan, Eastern Kentucky State Teachers College and Normal School, Richmond; President Butler Laughlin, Chicago Normal School, Chicago; President H. A. Brown, Illinois State Normal University, Normal; President C. M. Yoder, Wisconsin State Teachers College, Whitewater; and President J. O. Engleman, Kent State College, Kent, Ohio.

The conference will be one of discussion. There will be a general talk for each sectional meeting and these will be followed by discussion groups. Each representative has been urged to present the most vital problems of his institution.

How Do College Students Write and Spell?

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In order to determine how well college students write and spell after one quarter of school work it is necessary first of all to set up some problems that will serve as a guide in securing the results. The problems are as follows:

1. How much do college students improve in handwriting in one quarter by using the individualized-instruction method, by using the self-diagnosis method?

2. How much do college students improve in spelling in one quarter by using the so-many-words-per-day method, by using the individual-test-study-test method?

3. How will the results of using the period of fifty minutes divided into two equal periods of twenty-five minutes each for penmanship and spelling compare with the results of using the entire period for penmanship, permitting the student to study spelling in his own way and holding him responsible for the same words as in the class where twenty-five minutes are given to the subject?

The material and findings of this study in handwriting and spelling are the results of experimentation and study with one hundred nine students who were on the elementary teacher training course and the special commerce course at the Indiana State Teachers College. The study covers a period of one quarter—from October 1, 1930 to December 19, 1930.

The group of students was divided

into two classes, one of sixty-six students and the other of forty-three students. The two classes were comparatively equal in ability in so far as the initial achievement scores indicate. Different methods of instruction were used in the two groups for both penmanship and spelling.

In the class of sixty-six students the so-many-words-per-day method was used in spelling, and the individualized-instruction method was used in penmanship. In the class of forty-three students the individual-test-study-test method was used in spelling and the self-diagnosis method was used in penmanship.

Problem 1

At the beginning of the quarter all students were given a formal handwriting test. This test consisted of the following:

"I will always be true to my flag and to my dearly loved country; quick to join her cause, nor lax to keep her laws; a good citizen." (100 letters)

The students were instructed to memorize the selection to be written and to be thoroughly familiar with the spelling of all the words involved. Students can be said to be taking a real writing test only when they are busily engaged in writing a familiar passage and doing nothing else.

When the students had learned the passage, they were permitted to write it. They were timed on the test three different times. The students turned in to the instructor the papers which they considered their best ones. These

papers were then scored by the instructor using definite requirements of achievement in rate and quality of writing. A strict uniformity in the giving of the test was necessary in order to produce reliable data.

A stop watch with a second hand was used in preference to an ordinary clock in order to indicate the time accurately. Each student was instructed to get three clean sheets of paper, pen, and ink. These materials were uniform throughout. A copy of the selection to be written was placed on the front and side blackboard for ready reference. Only the best paper from each student was collected.

These specimens were scored in speed and quality according to the seven-step method of the American Handwriting Scale. After all papers were given a speed and quality score a careful diagnosis was made of them. A total of 2643 malformations was discovered. (Lack of space does not permit a detailed report on these malformations.)

In the individualized-instruction method the instructor scored the papers and each student was helped on the letters or combinations that gave him most trouble, while in the self-diagnosis group the students were directed to diagnose their own errors and list them. The instructor gave the students help on the errors they found on their own papers. The papers used for the diagnosis and grading were not the same ones used by the students in their individual diagnosis. They used one of the two remaining papers which they wrote on the initial test. At the end of the quarter the same test was given

them for the purpose of determining the gain over the initial test.

The median score in quality of handwriting for the individualized-instruction group on the initial test was 67.90 per cent and in speed 78.16 per cent. The median score in quality for the self-diagnosis group on the initial test was 66.82 per cent and in speed 79.80 per cent.

On the final test the same material was given to the students to write. The scores on the final test show the median for the individualized-instruction group in quality to be 78.88 per cent or a gain of 10.98 per cent over the initial test. The speed scores show a median of 71.50 per cent on the final test and a loss of 6.66 per cent. The scores on the final test show the median for the self-diagnosis group in quality to be 82.80 per cent or a gain of 15.98 per cent over the initial test. The speed scores on the final test show a median of 76.68 per cent, a loss in speed of 3.12 per cent.

Both classes made a decided gain in formal writing. The greater advantage was to the group using the self-diagnosis method. This group made a gain of 15.98 per cent over the initial test which was a gain of 5 per cent over the individualized-instruction group. The gain is significant in the fact that 62.78 per cent of the self-diagnosis group earned¹ handwriting certificates as compared to 34.84 per cent of the individualized-instruction group.

Problem 2

Each day fifty words were dictated to the class of sixty-six students by

¹In order to earn a handwriting certificate it is necessary for the student to write with a quality of 93 per cent or better as given on the American Handwriting Scale.

the instructor. After the words had been dictated, the students were instructed to exchange papers and grade as the instructor spelled the words correctly. This method was followed throughout the quarter. During the last two weeks of the quarter the entire list of words was given again to determine the final achievement on the quarter's work.

The individual-test-study-test method was used in the class of forty-three students. This method was different from the so-many-words-per-day method in that the students were allowed to study their spelling individually or in any way they preferred to do it. After they had completed the assignment for the quarter they took a final test to determine achievement.

The average achievement for the class using the so-many-words-per-day method on a list of one hundred words was 74.79 per cent. The average for the individual-test-study-test group was 77.78 per cent. The advantage was in favor of the individual-test-study-test group.

The highest score on the initial test in spelling was 97 per cent while the lowest was 37 per cent. The students making an achievement score of 95 per cent or better on the achievement test were not permitted to take spelling but were asked to take the final test to see if their achievement still was equal to 95 per cent or better. There were three students out of the one hundred nine who scored 95 per cent or better on the achievement test and in all three cases these same students scored 95 per cent or better on the final test. This tends to show that if a student can achieve a score of 95 per cent on

the list of words given as an achievement test he should be able to attain a score of 95 per cent or better on the entire quarter's work. The words selected for the test were selected by taking every fiftieth word in the text.

On the final test the so-many-words-per-day group scored a final achievement of 95.56 per cent over the entire quarter's work. The individual-test-study-test group scored 96.53 per cent. The gain of the individual-test-study-test group over the so-many-words-per-day group is not large enough to justify the recommendation of that method as the better of the two. It does, however, seem to indicate that the results by the individual-test-study-test method are good enough to justify using the time consumed by the so-many-words-per day method for penmanship.

In the spelling groups there was not much difference in the final achievement, the achievement of the individual-test-study-test group being 96.53 per cent as compared to 95.56 per cent for the so-many-words-per-day group. However, the class using the individual-test-study-test method had the full period for penmanship and as a result 62.78 per cent of the class earned handwriting certificates as compared to 34.84 per cent for the group using the individualized-instruction method in writing, and the so-many-words-per-day method in spelling. The significance of this is that when more time is allowed for penmanship better results can be obtained.

The list of words used for this test with the frequencies of the number of times each was missed out of a possible 109 times is given in the

table. The words were first pronounced and then used in a sentence or clearly defined in order to make them as clear as possible to the student.

ed from 23 to 5000. There were twenty-nine students from high schools having an enrollment of less than one hundred. There were thirty-five students from schools ranging

FREQUENCY TABLE OF WORDS MISSED ON SPELLING TEST

Word	Frequency	Word	Frequency	Word	Frequency
ukulele	105	professionally	29	welfare	12
sluice	95	bankruptcy	29	corporation	12
Hereford	90	labeled	29	unnecessary	11
blamable	80	interchangeable	25	attorney	11
imminent	73	scissors	25	granulated	11
Cincinnati	65	alphabetic	25	hanger	11
baccalaureate	65	lignite	25	finance	10
psychology	63	sophomore	25	vanilla	10
corduroy	63	brake	24	sincere	9
superintendence	61	valid	23	glider	9
judgment	60	registration	23	speculate	9
moccasin	57	appendicitis	23	penmanship	8
vitamin	55	zoology	22	intermediate	7
impairment	51	Pennsylvania	21	neither	7
moron	48	ordinance	21	whether	7
kilowatt	46	viaduct	21	concrete	7
specimen	46	vaccinate	20	committee	6
technique	45	receipt	20	waist	6
strenuous	45	disappoint	19	pumpkin	5
inalienable	45	fraternal	19	offset	4
coefficient	45	volume	17	livestock	3
raccoon	44	inquiry	17	middleman	3
hazardous	43	memorandum	17	waiter	2
excusable	43	initial	17	hospital	2
referee	40	pianos	16	supplying	2
hygiene	40	wringer	16	knob	1
derrick	39	brief	15	native	1
copyright	39	carton	15	blunder	1
residuary	36	violent	14	people	1
yacht	36	reputation	13	wave length	1
vagueness	34	referred	13	polish	0
hydrogen	33	equalizer	13	point	0
covenant	31	voltage	12		
asparagus	30	induced	12		

Only two words were not missed at all on the achievement test; they were "polish" and "point." "Ukulele" was missed the greatest number of times. This word was missed 105 times out of a possible 109.

Summary

The enrollment of the high schools represented in this experiment rang-

from one hundred to three hundred in enrollment, and forty-five students from schools the enrollment of which was more than three hundred.

The average in per cent scored on the initial test of one hundred words by the students from the schools with an enrollment of less than one hun-

(Continued on Page 122)

Facing Realities With Teachers

Edith M. Bader

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(The following talk was a part of the Foundation Day Program held at the Indiana State Teachers College, January 7, 1931.)

As students in a teachers college and as experienced teachers you have probably heard from this faculty, from preachers in the city, from superintendents, and from numerous other sources, about the grave responsibilities which you as teachers owe to your job and to the children who will come under your care. You have likewise heard much about what you and your personality will do to the children and to the profession. When one contemplates from this angle the work of being a teacher, it's a wonder any of us have the courage to assume the weighty responsibilities which it entails.

I would have you think with me for a short while this morning of the other side of the picture, namely of your responsibility to yourself and of what your job is likely to do to you. I contend that your first duty is to yourself, and that you should be as much concerned about what your job will do to you as about what you are likely to do to the job.

In our modern American society, which places a premium on conformity and uniformity, there is real difficulty in developing individuality and a personality which is distinctive. In matters of dress we, women in particular, are constantly playing a game of "Simon says thumbs up—thumbs down." We all dance to the same jazz. We all see the same movies and all listen in to the same radio programs. The Book of the Month

Club selects our books for us. Dr. Dewey says in his *Psychology of Conduct*, "For one man who thanks God that he is not as other men, there are a thousand who thank him because they are like the others. The ideal of our modern society is to become inconspicuous." The school's ideal good citizen often appears to be the conformist, the one who makes little trouble, the one who doesn't upset the system.

Teachers as a class are in graver danger in this respect than are many others. This is true, in the first place, because our jobs are assailable. We touch society where it is most sensitive—in its offspring; we meet people in realms controlled largely by emotions and personalities rather than by reason. It is often easier to submit, to deny one's own personality, than to make a fuss. Furthermore, the teacher's problem of developing individuality is complicated by the false standards of conventional ethics which society projects for them. Teachers are confronted in personal matters by taboos. There are taboos against dancing, taboos against smoking, taboos against dress, and even taboos against thinking. What right has society to demand of teachers standards which they themselves ignore or ridicule? Such taboos and conventions constitute a type of self-righteousness on the part of some groups, a form of rationalization. The type of ideal teacher which society frequently sets up for itself is as unreal as the aver-

age man. There is no such person. What society should wish for its teachers is that they be normal, that they be virile, that they be genuine.

Now, please don't misunderstand me. I'm not advocating that you go out and indulge in all forms of intemperance and indiscretions, but what I am urging is that you refrain from extravagance in living because it is bad for you. Your first duty is to develop a personality that is real, and not a cheap imitation of someone else, not a mere composite projection of a false conventional standard.

Modern psychology has revealed another personal danger which we as teachers face in a more exaggerated form than do some other groups, namely the danger from inner emotional conflicts. The problem of wasted human energy is serious. There is waste through chasing herd standards. There is waste in holding on to outgrown habits and institutions. There is waste through worry, sense of inferiority, and irrational fears. Margaret Namnberg in her book, *The Child and the World*, says, "The failure of the individual to know himself is the cause of his ineffective adaptation to a positive and social existence." Certainly teachers who themselves are torn by inner emotional conflicts cannot provide the environment in which children grow in poise, in wholesome mental habits, and in power. Your first duty is to build a personality which is not only real, but which is poised and freed from inner emotional stress and strain.

A third difficulty, which confronts teachers in this business of developing a personality, lies in the tendency of teachers as a group to observe life

from the side lines, so to speak, rather than to participate in it vigorously. This comes about, in the first place, because teachers, in America at least, are drawn in the main, from two of the protected groups of society. They are largely women, and they enter the profession at a tender age before life experience has been acquired. Furthermore, the exaggerated emphasis on books and intellectual pursuits as educational ideals leads teachers to find satisfaction in vicarious living. The attitude of society furnishes another factor in the situation and tends to fix into a habit a tendency already too strong in young teachers. I refer to the tendency of many communities to view teachers as a class instead of as individuals. Each community should feel responsible for seeing that its teachers, especially those who are alone in the world and who are young, have opportunities for participation in family and community affairs. We hear often of teachers who have adopted children; why not have families who adopt teachers? Your first duty is to develop a personality which is not only real and poised, but which is dynamic.

What have you a right to expect in this respect from this college, from this faculty? First of all, an opportunity to live by facing the problems of your own personality squarely. We are told that there are more nervous breakdowns among teachers than among any other single class. What are teachers colleges and universities doing about this matter? Are your psychology courses helping you to understand the workings of your own mind, while helping you to under-

stand the mind of the little child? Is the health program in this college helping you to establish the habits and attitudes essential to healthful living while giving you instruction in physical education, nutrition, and hygiene for children? When Christ came to the point of choosing his life work, he withdrew into the wilderness and there, for forty days and forty nights, he faced squarely the problem of his own personality. And not until he had resolved these inner personal conflicts did he go out to face the world. Your three or four years in this institution should constitute your forty days and forty nights in the wilderness. You have no right to leave this teachers college to face the problem of developing personality in little children until you yourself have learned a way of life which is sane, normal, poised, and full of courage.

Furthermore, this teachers college should give you an opportunity to live by coming to grips with some of the real problems of the world. Your history courses, your geography courses, your science courses should give practice in thinking the real problems of life and help you interpret life as it is. What we need more and more in teacher training institutions is humanized subject matter and not so much professionalized subject matter.

In the third place, this school should give you an opportunity to live through participation in community and state enterprises. There are a vast number of educational problems crying for solution; problems in child psychology, problems in curriculum research, problems in teaching methods, problems in educational organ-

ization. Your classes here should give practice in social thinking by helping you to come to grips with problems which are real and which are significant in the fields into which you will go.

Now let us return to the second question, "What is the job likely to do to you?" What can the job do to you? You know the answer already—you've seen the types. If you don't know them from actual experience, you've seen them in caricatures and in the "funnies." This job of teaching can make you irritable and crabby, or buoyant and happy. It can make you pedantic and conventional, or sincere and human. It can make you authoritative and bossy, or truly democratic. It can make you childish and superficial, or deep and broad-minded. It can make you hate life or love it.

Modern psychology tells us that we learn our reactions. We can't set up learning situations for children without having those situations at the same time put their stamp on us. There is no escape. Fortunately we can control the nature of the stamp which the job puts upon us. There are three solutions when facing the realities of one's job. There is the way of escape into some other field. Some of you are already contemplating such a solution, or you may remain in it and let it dwarf, thwart, and kill. The number of teachers who have drifted into this solution is all too large to give courage to those of us who are seeking another solution. Finally there is the possibility of finding in the job a means of personal growth and satisfaction.

My thesis, if I have one, this morning is this, "The modern elementary

school offers a means of life, a way of salvation to teachers as well as to pupils." You may remain in it and have it contribute to your own growth and your own personal satisfaction. This is possible because the modern elementary school offers an intellectual challenge to teachers today through its expanding and enriched curriculum and through its emphasis on problem solution as the method of learning. The new curriculum demands not less subject matter, as many seem to think, but more. You simply can't learn enough from your history courses and geography courses and your science courses to answer adequately all the questions which an eight-year-old child can put to you. You must be constantly expanding and adding to your store of information if you would meet the demands of the newer elementary curriculum. But it is this very challenge which constitutes the life-giving opportunities of the school for the teacher. One teacher remarked that in her effort to keep up with her children in the newer types of education she was literally seeing the world with new eyes every day. Such stimulation could never come from the traditional curriculum based on the three R's, nor from a teaching procedure based on a single text, nor from the traditional question and answer recitation. The new curriculum not only demands of teachers a broad cultural background by way of preparation, but it also helps furnish it for them. The new method not only demands teachers who can think, but it also stimulates growth in critical judgment and reasoning power.

The modern elementary school

should keep the teacher alive and growing because it offers the opportunity for studying the realities of life at first hand through the growing, developing personality of a little child. Emphasis on growth versus learning, as an educational ideal is leading teachers to become keen observers rather than dictators and trainers. This point of view is leading to a reorganization and re-emphasis of values. The realities to a little child are love, joy, sorrow, work, and play, and not programs, quizzing, and following orders. The newer programs are offering the child long periods for concentration and continuous flow of activity. In this way the child learns to budget his own time and is not dependent upon a teacher and a buzzer system. The newer programs are offering centers of interest as starting points for the educative experience and not assigned tasks. The newer programs are putting an emphasis upon experiencing rather than upon listening and answering questions. Answering questions is really not educative, but finding things in life to ask questions about is vastly important. How can a teacher whose mind is no broader than a textbook keep alive this eager questioning attitude of little children which is so important for continuous growth? In the new scheme of things the teacher's supreme effort is not to teach but rather to help children experience deeply and completely. How can she do this if she herself is not living fully and completely? The new program is using a new type of control with children. The shift in discipline is from external to internal controls. If a child is to live, he must get away from false

dependence upon the teacher. Keeping still and following orders is not discipline, but finding something interesting to do and then finding ways of releasing energy to do it—that's discipline. The channels of a teacher's life must be broad and deep; she must be herself a dynamic growing personality if she would stimulate, guide, and direct vital life currents in the child.

In the third place the modern school becomes a way of life to those who enter it because it offers an opportunity to work creatively. The day of prescribed curricula, uniform schedules, and stereotyped teaching procedures is past. The demands of today are for teachers who are resourceful, creative, and experimental in their work. The day of autocratic supervision and administration in matters of curricula, methods, and school organization is likewise past. Teachers are more and more being called upon to participate in curriculum construction, to evolve teaching methods, to pass critical judgment upon their own work, and to determine to a large extent the conditions under which they will work. Such an organization not only demands of teachers individual initiative and experimental attitude, but it helps to produce such characteristics in them. If you are willing and courageous enough to work creatively, you may release powers you never knew you possessed.

What have you a right to expect from this school and this faculty with respect to your job? Your experience here should offer abundant practice in defining and solving real problems of education and life, frequent opportunities to study and ob-

serve little children grow, and rich experience in mastering subject matter functionally. I hold that the essence of good teaching method is:

Knowing and understanding the growth processes in little children; a rich background of experience gained from real participation in the affairs of the world; a mind trained in locating and defining live social problems; a personality characterized by mental and physical health.

Now for a very brief moment permit me to indulge in reminiscence, and a personal expression of appreciation for what this institution and this faculty have meant to me and to hundreds and thousands of alumni scattered throughout this land.

As I look back on those earlier days and try to evaluate, I am conscious of certain values which have been permanent and of inestimable worth to the cause of education in this state and nation. I am conscious that there existed then, and has continued to exist, a unity of purpose in all curricula which expressed itself in a philosophy which was sound and dependable. I would in this field pay tribute to two great personalities. Mr. Parsons, an administrator with sanity of judgment, refinement of spirit, and breadth of vision, and Mr. Stalker, who has so recently been taken from our midst, a friend with rarest sympathy and understanding, a personality poised, genuine, and dynamic—one of the greatest teachers this institution has known.

There was apparent in those early days an emphasis on straight thinking which resulted in work of highest quality in every department. There has been little that is shallow or superficial in the training given here.

For this we honor Mr. Kelso, Dr. Dryer, Mr. Cox, Mr. McBeth, and many others who have gone from our midst as well as many who are still here; great teachers all of them, uncompromising in their attitude toward truth and sound in methods and techniques.

I am conscious also of a teaching method based on a sound psychology of learning. To the genius of Mr. Sandison, we must pay tribute to this ideal.

In the field of practice teaching there was ever apparent a question-

ing attitude and a forward look. I have never ceased to be grateful for the great teacher who guided us there, Mr. Charman, a true friend, a wise counselor, a patient guide and director.

An institution can be no greater and no finer than the personalities who guide it. It is indeed a rare privilege which you students have today in this institution with its noble traditions and with its present faculty composed of splendid dynamic personalities, having purpose, insight, and vision. I congratulate you.

HOW DO COLLEGE STUDENTS WRITE AND SPELL?

(Continued from Page 116)

dred was 70.7 per cent. The per cent scored on the initial test of students from schools ranging from one hundred to three hundred in enrollment was 80.7 per cent. The per cent scored by the students from the schools with an enrollment of more than three hundred was 77.4 per cent.

The highest per cent was scored by the students from the schools ranging in enrollment from one hundred to three hundred, this being 80.7 per cent which is 3.3 per cent higher than the schools with an enrollment of more than three hundred and 10 per cent higher than the schools with an enrollment of less than one hundred.

On the final test given the scores ranged from 83.1 per cent to 100 per cent which was a decided gain over the scores of the initial test. The significance of this fact is that spelling can be mastered and that improvement can be made.

Spelling of college students is poor, and needs more attention, not only from the regular college classes in spelling but in the other courses as well.

The results obtained in one quarter of the school year show that improvement in spelling can be secured and is desirable.

The results in penmanship tend to show that the gains made in one quarter justify the time given to it along with spelling.

NEW PRESIDENTS

F. S. Hyer is the new president of the State Teachers College at Stevens Point, Wisconsin, succeeding President R. D. Baldwin who resigned September 15, 1930. President Hyer, who was transferred from the State Teachers College at Whitewater, Wisconsin, was succeeded by President C. M. Yoder.

Remedial Practice as a Means of Increasing Typing Power

Irma Ehrenhardt

Assistant Professor of Commerce
Indiana State Teachers College

Mr. F. G. Nichols of Harvard University states that typewriting in the business office is important enough to justify a careful consideration of the subject as a part of business education which is appropriate to the early years of the secondary school period. The majority of pupils in secondary schools take typewriting for vocational purposes; the remainder learn the skill for personal use. The person learning typewriting for vocational use requires more typing power than the person who is learning typewriting for personal use but in both cases typing power is necessary. The difference is one of degree.

Typing power embraces two factors of typewriting; (1) manipulative ability which consists of rhythmic touch typing, correct technique, a knowledge of the machine including the functions of the various parts, the changing of ribbons including the economic device of using both the upper and lower half, and the cleaning of the machine; (2) typewriting ability—the ability for which the business man pays, such as, typing of business letters accurately, efficient use of carbons, proper addressing of envelopes, writing on cards of all sizes, tabulation of statistics, composing material at the machine, the artistic and practical sense of proportion in spacing material, copying from rough draft, dictation at the machine, ability to use correct English, spelling, and punctuation, the

making of neat erasures and the formation of the habit of checking the work before removing it from the machine.

What is meant by remedial practice? "A man must be assured that he will not be penalized for his mistakes if he will only learn from them in the end," says John A. Hartford, president of the Atlantic and Pacific Company. Likewise errors made in typewritten work may be utilized advantageously. No, errors are not admonished but when they do occur, they should serve as warnings of weaknesses. First, the errors must be analyzed by the pupil under the direction of the instructor. Are they mental errors or manipulation errors? Mental errors consist of transposition of letters or words, the doubling of the wrong letter, omissions of letters, words, phrases or lines, and additions of letters or words. Dr. Book in *Learning to Typewrite* has expounded fully on the analysis of errors. Manipulation errors refer to imperfect left margin, faulty shifting, faulty paragraphing, imperfect spaces between words, letters, or lines. Remedial practice is the intelligent practice a pupil does in order to prevent the recurrence of the error made. The true test of typing power is the rate of writing a pupil can consistently maintain for long periods of time, the rate that he can maintain upon new material (other than printed speed tests sent out by

typewriter companies), the rate at which he can accurately operate a machine with facility and skill. Since accuracy is the goal, errors must be obliterated.

What kind of remedial practice affords good results? The most common types are the corrective drill, the ironing out method, and the practice on difficult combinations. The following are examples of the methods:

all typing errors made on budget assignments and speed tests. "Class B" used the corrective drill for remedial practice on all typing errors. In both cases the amount of repetitive practice depended upon the typist as he knew better than the instructor whether or not he had overcome the weakness. For comparative purposes, the medians of the weekly fifteen minute speed tests were used. Fortunately these speed

Corrective Drill

douvt

Struck a "v" for a "b"

fbf jnj gbf hnj vbf mnj fth jny fbf jnj bgf nhj bvf mnj btf
bank maybe public beg business oblige members baby above by
doubt bring probably boy maybe bill subject job October big
Able business men build reliable buildings and are responsible.

Error Sheet

(Ironing Out Method)

Error

Correction

telephone
private

of telephone service
for private use

of telephone service of telephone service of telephone service of telephone
of telephone service of telephone service of telephone service of telephone
of telephone service of telephone service of telephone service of telephone
for private use for private use for private use for private use for private
for private use for private use for private use for private use for private
for private use for private use for private use for private use for private
Recently you were interviewed by a representative of this company relative
to a form of **telephone service** we are introducing which covers the leasing
of our lines **for private use** for a period as short as one-half an hour daily
if used before 10:00 a. m., between 12:00 m. and 1:00 p. m., and after
4: p. m.

(Difficult Combination Drill)

Error

Correction

conauer

conquer

nq
qu
conquer conquer conquer conquer conquer conquer conquer conquer conquer conquer

An experiment was tried in two parallel classes (second term typing classes) at Indiana State Teachers College in order to compare two methods of remedial practice, the corrective drill and the ironing out method. "Class A" used the ironing out method for remedial practice on

tests are gradually fading into the background as shown by the discontinuance of the Annual International Typewriting Contest, the discontinuance of pins given as awards, the introduction of transcription into monthly practice material by the Royal Typewriting Company, but

these tests have a few redeeming features and so why not make the most of them? In this case, they served as an indicator for the progress in speed (on straight copy material) during the term. Each typist also kept an individual progress chart, an example of which is given.

finger reaches, carriage throw, "a" finger for marginal release and back spacer, on the Underwood, et cetera. It may be suggested here that the L. C. Smith and Corona Typewriter Company Inc., provide typing classes gratis with excellent Technique Check-Up sheets.

Progress Record

Date	Time	Kind of Material Used	Gross Strokes	Errors	Net Strokes	Net Speed P. M.	
						Strokes	Words
1-15	15 m	Underwood, Jan. '30	2580	4	2380	159	32
1-22	15 m	Remington, Jan. '30	2610	3	2460	164	33

Each week the two class medians were placed on the wall chart (secured from the Weber-Costello Company, School Supplies, Chicago Heights, Illinois, Chart No. 2). The median of the class on each test was found by ranking the papers according to net speed and taking the middle paper as the median. The results are tabulated in Table I.

Third, by reviewing the mechanics of the machine during the "improvement period" in order that the pupil knows every part of the machine and its function and knows how to change the ribbon properly as, "No workman can work well or quickly without knowing his tools."

How does remedial practice increase all-round typewriting ability?

TABLE I
PROGRESS MADE BY CLASS A AND CLASS B

Week	Weekly Medians of Net Speed		Difference in Favor of Class A	Weekly Median No. of Errors		Difference in Favor of Class A
	Class A	Class B		Class A	Class B	
1	28	28	0	8	9	1
2	29	27	2	6	8	2
3	30	29	1	6	8	2
4	34	31	3	6	7	1
5	31	33	-2	7	10	3
6	35	33	2	8	9	1
7	35	30	5	8	10	2
8	36	31	5	6	8	2
9	35	35	0	9	9	0
10	38	35	3	5	9	4
Median	35	31		7	9	

Since the results of Class A are somewhat better than those of Class B, they show an indication that the ironing out method may be the better of the two.

How does remedial practice increase manipulative ability?

First, by correct repetitive practice which makes for rhythmic touch typing—the foundation of typing power.

Second, by emphasizing correct technique which includes posture,

ty? First and last the answer is by making accurate typists. Can your typists produce a perfect one hundred and fifty word letter at the first writing? Of course, all-round typewriting ability can only be tested by specific tests on its various phases. But remedial practice will pave the way for the accurate typing of invoices, cards, letters, envelopes, et cetera. It will take care of the "skill" part but the "related know-

(Continued on Page 128)

Around the Reading Table

Indiana School Law and Supreme Court Decisions by Clement T. Malan, Professor of Political Science, Indiana State Teachers College. (Terre Haute, Indiana: Teachers College Press. 1931. Pp. x, 471.)

"Since 1923 the State Department of Public Instruction of Indiana has required that all who apply for administrative licenses must have had as a part of their training requirements a course in Indiana School Law. Dr. Malan saw the need for a textbook for this course and prepared this combined organization of the school laws of the state and the pertinent supreme court decisions and supplemented them with the appropriate historical development. County, town, and city superintendents and school trustees will find this book a valuable aid to have on their ready reference shelf.

"The vocabulary is notably lacking in technical legal terms; the style is simple and direct; tables and charts amply illustrate points in the text; and copious citations to statutes and decisions indicate a thoroughgoing and scientific treatment of the matter.

"The work is divided into five parts: Legal Organization and Administration of Education in Indiana; The Legal Status of Pupils, Parents, Teachers, and School Administrative Officers; School Equipment and Environment; Financial Support of Schools; and Desirable Educational Reorganization. The Appendix contains a detailed analysis of the duties and activities of the State Superintendent and members of the State Board of Education.

"After a careful treatment of the school laws and supreme court decisions, Dr. Malan suggests four desirable changes in educational procedure in Indiana. He recommends (1) the selection of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction by the State Board of Education; (2) a continuing State Board of Education appointed by the governor; (3) the centralizing of greater local control in the County Board of Education in a County-township unit plan; (4) free textbooks."

—H. L. Smith, Dean
School of Education
Indiana University.

"I was quite pleased a few days ago to receive Dr. Malan's book, *Indiana School Law and Supreme Court Decisions*. I believe that Dr. Malan has made a real contribution to the field of school law. The book is well organized, easily understood, and the interpretative discussions scattered through the book make it more than a mere resume of legal enactments. Consequently, it is more interesting to read than most books of this type. I believe, also, that the comparison with other states will help in making the situation in our own state a little clearer."

—Earl C. Bowman
Director of Student Teaching
DePauw University.

"I have examined with some care the copy of Professor Malan's new book, *Indiana School Law and Supreme Court Decisions*. It is a very desirable text for courses in Indiana School Law, and fulfills, in my judgment, the requirements for principals' licenses in this branch. The subjects treated are well chosen, and students may derive from this book a good working knowledge of fundamental matters relating to the laws governing the public schools. I am pleased to recommend this book as a manual for school officials as well as for students in school administration courses."

—Edwin S. Monroe
Oakland City College.

"I am pleased to make the following statement in regard to Dr. Malan's book. School people have long felt the need of a book that not only states the fundamental facts of Indiana School Law, but also sets forth principles to guide in the administration of the law. It should be in the hands of every administrator and teacher in Indiana. We contemplate using it in our classes in school law."

—D. T. Cushman
Associate Professor of Secondary
Education
Ball State Teachers College.

"After learning that Dr. Malan was preparing a text on Indiana State School Law, I waited with considerable interest for the book to appear. It came last week and I gave it 'the once over' quickly and decided that it came fully up to expectations. Indiana State School Laws as it has always appeared from the press of the State Printer has never been a usable textbook. There has always been a great need for Dr. Malan's work.

"The task of preparing this text has not been slight, but it has been accomplished in excellent fashion. I can assure you that we shall give the book a thorough trial as soon as we offer the course and we have the fullest expectation that it will come to fill a long felt need."

—A. B. Cope
Professor of Education
Evansville College.

"It is a pleasure to give my reactions to Dr. C. T. Malan's newly published book, *Indiana School Law and Supreme Court Decisions*. It is evident that Dr. Malan made an exhaustive study of the statutes and court decisions relating to a number of very important school situations in Indiana. I am sure that this careful legal research, developed in a way that school administrators and teachers may understand, should be a valuable contribution to the educational literature of this state."

—W. W. Patty
Professor of Education
Indiana University.

"I find the book quite adequate in every respect. It is undoubtedly the best work on School Law that has been published to date. Dr. Malan not only has written clearly and concisely, but has organized the law around large important questions and has summarized each chapter effectively.

"He attacks the matter from historical development and then gives the influence of the supreme court on the legal decisions and finally criticizes very admirably many weaknesses in our fundamental law.

"The whole is done in a very scholarly fashion well annotated from original sources. I recommend it most highly for classes in School Law and intend to use it at Butler University."

—Irvin T. Shultz
Associate Professor of Psychology
Butler University.

"I have received a copy of *Indiana School Law and Supreme Court Decisions*. After examining it, there is no question in my mind but that we wish to use the book for our courses in Indiana School Law. I shall notify the Extension Divisions at Indianapolis and at Fort Wayne that the book should be available for those who will enroll for the course during the first week of February.

"I believe that Dr. Malan has done a very useful service for students of school law. Of course, the best test will be the use of the book as a text in the course, under actual teaching conditions. I believe that it will meet that test admirably, and I shall be pleased to tell you the results."

—James J. Robinson
Law Faculty
Indiana University.

Biological Foundations of Education by Otis W. Caldwell, Professor of Education and Director, Institute of School Experimentation, Teachers College, Columbia University; Charles Edward Skinner, Professor of Education, School of Education, New York University; and J. Winfield Tietz, Instructor in the Departments of Biology and Health Education, DeWitt Clinton High School, New York City. (Boston: Ginn and Company. 1931. Pp. vii, 534.)

This book is one of two pioneers in its field. It treats of a field about which a working knowledge is sadly needed. The materials in this text were formerly scattered through some seven or eight subjects and in a somewhat unintegrated form at that. The authors are to be complimented on attacking so difficult and yet so valuable a subject.

The book faces candidly an evolutionary world. By this is not meant that evolution is limited to the rather inconsequential monkey-man type of evolution. Such fundamental fields as morphology, physiology, hygiene, anthropology, embryology, psychology, heredity, eugenics, and sociology are integrated for the purpose of furnishing a wiser philosophy of education than we at present have. There may not be universal agreement as to these attempted integrations and the resultant interpretations. To the reviewer these do seem to be very sanely done, however. Older theory is given its proper place as well as newer theory. The recent researches in many of the fields enumerated are given consideration.

The specific materials of the book are so varied that a review to which small space is given is not possible. The bibliographies at the end of each chapter are most excellent. The mechanical aspects of the book are superior. A greater wealth of illustrations would have enhanced the value of the book, though the ones that are used are excellent. The book is an outstanding piece of work.

—E. E. Ramsey

Head, Department of Education.

Washburne Individual Arithmetic, Books One-Twelve, by Carleton Washburne, Superintendent of the Winnetka, Illinois, Public Schools, with the cooperation of the teachers in the Winnetka schools and others. (Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company. 1930.)

This series as a whole represents the active participation and experience of more than sixty Winnetka teachers of Grades 1-6 under the direction of Superintendent Washburne over a period of ten years. The preparation of this series passed through the various stages of mimeographed materials and revised experimental editions to the final edition.

The Washburne Individual Arithmetic consists of Books One to Twelve; Pad for Book Eight; Test Book for Books One to Five; Correction Book for Books One to Five; Test Book for Books Six to Twelve; Key for Test Book for Books One to Twelve; and Teachers Manual.

Dr. Washburne as a member of the "Committee of Seven Investigation" in arithmetic for the National Society for the Study of Education, and also as an independent research man in the field of arithmetic has attracted well-earned attention. Without much doubt, this new series of arithmetics deserves a great deal of consideration.

In this series of textbooks there is not a definite book to a grade as in the usual textbook series. Books One to Five constitute a unit for the first three or four grades; Books Six to Twelve complete the work through the normal Grade 6. While the books were planned especially for individual instruction, there seems to be no reason why they could not be adapted for use under the activity or contract plan.

Books One to Twelve, containing about 100 pages each, provide the pupil's regular assignments. The Test Books are for diagnosing difficulties, and through the Key for Test Book they are keyed to the Correction Books in which the pupils find the special practice they need. The system of diagnostic testing and remedial practice is a significant feature of the Individual Arithmetic. This part of the series which is contained in the Correction Books and the Test Books, might well be used with any other basal arithmetic text.

While the Individual Arithmetic consists of a series of self-instructive, self-corrective, and in many cases self-testing booklets, it should not be thought that the need for the teacher has been eliminated. In fact, there is considerable reason to believe that the successful use of this series will require an exceedingly well trained teacher. Most teachers who have attempted individual instruction have found that a more subtle type of leadership is required in getting each pupil to work independently and progressively by himself than to direct the work in group discussion. For this reason, it seems probable that the Individual Arithmetic will meet with the best success in those school systems having the departmentalized type of organization where the teachers are well trained and are under expert supervision.

Since the Individual Arithmetic is a combina-

tion of explanatory text and workbook whereby the pupil actually does much of his computation in the book, this series will find little favor in those school systems which prefer to have books handed down from one pupil to another. Because of the wealth of material of all needed kinds contained in the books, the cost is considerably greater than that of many arithmetics now in use.

—Walter O. Shriner

Head, Department of Mathematics.

Our United States—A History of the Nation by James A. Woodburn, Indiana University; Thomas F. Moran, Purdue University; and Howard Copeland Hill, Laboratory Schools, University of Chicago. (New York: Longmans, Green and Company. 1930. Pp. xxxiv, 779.)

This volume is a revision of *Elementary American History and Government* by James A. Woodburn and Thomas F. Moran. It is intended for students in the upper-elementary and junior high school grades.

Two hundred five pages are devoted to the Colonial and Revolutionary periods, two hundred thirty-six pages to the period from 1783 to 1860, sixty-nine pages are devoted to the Civil War and Reconstruction periods, and two hundred forty-four pages to the recent history of the United States. Thus it will be seen that in accordance with the modern idea, the recent period is stressed. The book ends with a discussion of the election of Hoover and the Boulder Canyon Dam Act.

The volume is divided into ten parts or units. In connection with each unit the authors attempt to follow certain main lines of progress rather than to present a mass of miscellaneous and unrelated facts. This gives greater unity to the treatment. Each of the ten parts is preceded by a pre-view, giving the heart of the movement to be studied. Each chapter is followed by suggestions in the form of questions, problems, projects, and exercises of wide variety. A list of references is also given at the end of each chapter. Finally, each of the ten parts is followed by an exercise under the title, "Looking Backward." This portion is intended as a summary.

The text is an attractive one in every way. It contains more than two hundred illustrations, including eleven colored plates, and between forty and fifty maps. It contains an appendix which includes, among other things, the population of each state according to the census of 1930.

The volume impresses the reviewer as one admirably adapted to the teaching of history in the grades for which it is intended. It is a usable text and should be a great aid to teachers.

—Charles Roll

Associate Professor of History.

How to Speak by Adelaide Patterson, Professor of Public Speaking at the Rhode Island College of Education and Instructor of Education and Phonetics at the Emerson College of Oratory. (Boston: Little, Brown, and Company. 1931. Pp. 158.)

The market today is flooded with textbooks for speech courses in colleges and secondary schools, but not often do we find one which has the merit of simplicity and clearness. *How to Speak* is a small book limited to but two aspects of speech training—voice management and articulation—and with almost no technical discussion. It is designed for those who have not the opportunity of studying under a regular instructor. Its simplicity, therefore, recommends it to the busy English teacher who is expected to find a method of guiding young pupils into correct speech habits without regular speech courses or speech supervision.

The literary material essential to the proper practice and illustration of the principles and methods set forth in the book is pleasing in its variety. The short poems, old and new, are suggestive of other supplementary material which the teacher may find in any program of required subjects.

The use of such practical and sensible little aids as found in Miss Patterson's outline will do much to hasten the time when the development of a pleasing voice and a distinct and refined utterance

of words will be considered just as necessary to general culture as any other phase of education.

—Mabel Coddington
Acting Instructor in English.

A Project in Fourth-Year English Composition. A Description of the University High School. University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. XXVIII, No. 10. (Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois. 1930. Pp. 36.)

"The following project . . . is here presented as an example of cooperative planning and well motivated writing in an English class."

This sentence, taken from the preface of the bulletin, is an arresting one to teachers of English. Some would be skeptical, of course, and exclaim, "Probably just another cure-all scheme of some educational quacks!" But they would be emphatically wrong in this instance. The method of procedure here described is of extraordinary clarity and practical value.

The outstanding point of interest is the fact that the bulletin was written by members of the senior class in the university high school. That is at once a danger and a challenge. But the student editors, despite their exaggerated, though forgivable, school pride, have done a good job. They know intimately every phase of the work and organization of their school, and they make an attractive picture of it all the way from practice teachers to athletics. They thoroughly understand the steps they have taken, they are proud of their achievement and of their school, and they prove that they have made a large and practical success of their training in English. What more could one ask? Nothing, unless it be a finer degree of polish and perfection. "A student's reach should exceed his grasp, or what's the science of education for?" Upon laying the bulletin aside, one feels like saying, "Here is unquestionably a splendid high school—well equipped, skilfully directed, and justifiably proud of its product."

—Leslie H. Meeks
Head, Department of English.

Trends in Secondary Education by Wayne W. Soper and Warren W. Cox of the Educational Research Division, New York State Education Department. University of the State of New York Bulletin No. 961. (Albany: The University of the State of New York. 1930. Pp. 71.)

The rapid increase in secondary school enrollments within the present century may well be called the greatest event in the history of schools. This growth has prompted considerable attention from students of education, and at present the United States Office of Education is making a survey of secondary education which will probably prove to be the most outstanding study of its kind ever made. The Research Division of The University of the State of New York is getting ahead of the parade a few jumps by making a

survey of some of the trends of secondary education in its own state.

Data for the study in New York were gathered from the annual reports of the University of the State of New York and the State Department of Education, the biennial reports of the Bureau of Education, and United States Census Reports. The most recent date of the data reported is 1927.

Trends of growth in enrollment of high schools and academies, with special attention to growth in enrollments by sex, by grade, by age of students, and by school subjects, are shown. Trends in costs are shown also.

The study pertains exclusively to quantitative measurements of secondary education. The data are limited almost exclusively to the state of New York. Therefore, the report will be of little interest to any one outside such state except to a specialist in the field of secondary education.

—J. R. Shannon
Professor of Education.

Physical Capacity Tests, Notes on Testing Techniques and the Significance of Tests by Frederick Rand Rogers. (New York: A. S. Barnes and Company. 1931. Pp. viii, 50.)

This small volume may be regarded somewhat as a supplement to Dr. Roger's earlier book, "Physical Capacity Tests in the Redirection of Physical Education in High Schools."

Dr. Rogers lists some general suggestions for improving accuracy in testing as well as specific procedures. Accuracy, according to him, may be secured only by the closest attention to details and unflagging zeal in stimulating and assisting subjects to give their best efforts.

Specific procedures for the use of various physical capacity tests are set forth in clear concise fashion and supplemented by splendid illustrations. No teacher of physical education could err very much in the giving of physical capacity tests if the directions and illustrations given in this manual are followed closely.

Part II of the "pocket manual" is devoted to a discussion of the significance of physical capacity tests. Part III is devoted to a discussion of materials and how they may be secured. Supplementary instructions and norm charts with a discussion of using Physical Fitness Indices are discussed from the standpoint of their practical application. This book should be very valuable to the physical educator in the field of tests and measurements.

—A. L. Strum, Head
Physical Education Department for Men.

Workbook for a Laboratory Course in Civics (Revised 1930) by Gale Smith, superintendent of schools, Rennselaer, Indiana. (Topeka, Kansas: The Historical Publishing Company. 1930. Pp. 63.) Contains eighteen problems.

REMEDIAL PRACTICE AS A MEANS OF INCREASING TYPING POWER (Continued from Page 125)

ledge," correct English, spelling, capitalization, manipulation, form, and arrangement will have to be taught directly by the instructor. Add to the above the "Job Intelligence" factor—does the pupil cooperate with others, is he on time, is he neat, is he energetic—then the instructor has a typist of whom he can be proud and one who can fulfill the requirements of a typing job.

What the instructor wants to pro-

duce is a thinking typist and not a gum chewing, finger accelerist. One of the steps which aid toward making a thinking typist is intelligent remedial practice on typewriting errors. It arouses the pupil to self-criticism. Since remedial practice increases manipulative ability, consequently increasing all-round typewriting ability, it also increases typing power which is made up of the two aforementioned abilities.

**OUTSTANDING NEW READERS
FOR THE
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REAL LIFE READERS**

By

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Patty Smith Hill, Columbia University

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